ON THE OSCILLATION OF SOLUTIONS OF CERTAIN SELF-ADJOINT LINEAR DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS OF THE FOURTH ORDER

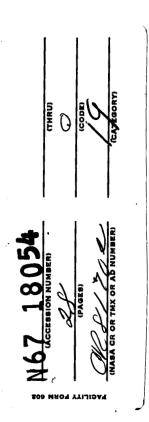
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CHAPTER I

THE CLASS F

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper investigates the oscillatory properties of solutions to certain self-adjoint linear differential equations of the fourth order. This topic has been studied by Barrett [1,2]*, Leighton and Nehari [4], and others. It is shown that the results of section three of [4] can be obtained under weaker hypothesis than assumed there. In at least one place new results, Lemma 3.4, were needed, but usually the techniques used in [4] still work under the weakened hypothesis.

A general self-adjoint linear differential equation of the fourth order is of the form

(1.1)
$$[r(x)y^n(x)]^n * [q(x)y^n(x)]^n * p(x)y(x) = 0$$

where r and p are continuous and r(x) > 0 for all x on the interval under consideration and q has a continuous derivative.

Before continuing it will be necessary to make some fundamental definitions.

DEFINITION 1.1. A solution to a differential equation (1.1) is said to be escillatory on the interval (a,∞) , where a>0, if it has an infinite number of zeros on this interval.

^{*}The numbers which appear in brackets correspond to the Bibliography of this paper.

DEFINITION 1.2. A solution to a differential equation (1.1) is said to be nonoscillatory on (a, ∞) , a > 0, if it has only a finite number of zeros on the interval.

DEFINITION 1.3. A differential equation is said to be oscillatory if at least one of its solutions is oscillatory, and nonoscillatory if all of its solutions are nonoscillatory.

DEFINITION 1.4. A solution to a differential equation is said to

have a zero of order k at a point b > 0 if the solution and its first

k - 1 derivatives are zero at b. In theorems concerning the number of

zeros of a solution, a zero of order k will be counted as k zeros.

In sections three and four this paper will concern itself with a particular class of the differential equations of the type (1.1). This class will be denoted by F and will consist of all equations of the form (1.1) with the property that if y is a solution of the equation and y(b) = 0 = y'(b), b > 0, then $y(x) \neq 0$ for all x in (0,b) or for all x in (b, ∞) ; moreover, if y(b) = y'(b) = y''(b) = 0 then $y(x) \neq 0$ for $x \neq b$.

In the last chapter of this paper particular nonempty subclasses of F will be examined.

II. PRELIMINARY RESULTS

We now consider some properties of general fourth order linear differential equations.

THEOREM 2.1. Given three, not necessarily distinct, positive

numbers, there exists a solution to (1.1) having zeros at these three numbers.

PROOF. If all three zeros coincide then the result follows from the existence theorem [4]. Otherwise let y_1 , y_2 , y_3 , and y_4 be linearly independent solutions of (1.1) and let a_1 , a_2 , a_3 , and a_4 be solutions of the system

$$\sum_{i=1}^{j_4} a_i y_i(x_j) = 0, \quad (j = 1, 2, 3),$$

or the system

according as the three points are distinct or two of them coincide. Each system is a homogeneous system of three equations in four unknowns and a nontrivial solution always exists. Then the function y defined by $y(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{L} a_i y_i(x)$ is a solution having the three desired zeros.

LEMMA 2.2. Let u and v be of class 0' in (a,b) and let v have no zeros in this interval. If u has two distinct zeros, say a_1 and a_2 in (a,b), then the function S(x) = v(x)u'(x) = u(x)v'(x) must have a zero in (a_1,a_2) .

PROOF. Let g(x) = u(x)/v(x). Then $g'(x) = [v(x)u'(x) - u(x)v'(x)]/[v(x)]^{-2} = S(x)[v(x)]^{-2}$. So $\int_{a_1}^{a_2} g'(x)dx = \int_{a_1}^{a_2} S(x)[v(x)]^{-2}dx$.

The integral on the left may be evaluated by the fundamental theorem of integral calculus. Since $g(a_1) = g(a_2) = 0$, then $\int_{a_1}^{a_2} S(x)[v(x)]^{-2} dx = 0$. This implies that S have at least one zero in (a_1, a_2) .

THEOREM 2.3. Let u and v be of class C' in (a,b) and let v have no zeros in this interval. If in (a,b) u has two distinct consecutive zeros, say a_1 and a_2 then there exists a constant μ such that the function z defined by $z(x) = u(x) - \mu v(x)$ has a double zero in (a_1,a_2) .

PROOF. These conditions exactly fit Lemma 2.2, so S must have a zero, say x_0 , in (a_1,a_2) . If $\mu=u(x_0)/v(x_0)$, then $z(x_0)=z'(x_0)=0$; that is, z has a double zero at x_0 .

III. THE NUMBER OF ZEROS OF A SOLUTION ON AN INTERVAL

This section concerns itself with the number of zeros of solutions to equations in F. One of the most important results of this section concerns two solutions to an equation in F that have three zeros in common.

THEOREM 3.1. If y_1 and y_2 are two nontrivial solutions to an equation in F that have three, not necessarily distinct, zeros in common, then y_1 and y_2 are constant multiples of each other.

PROOF. Let the three zeros be a, b, and c where $0 < a \le b \le c$. The different configurations of zeros will have to be studied in cases.

Case I. All three zeros are distinct, a < b < c . Since there are zeros at a and c then $y_1'(b) \neq 0$ and $y_2'(b) \neq 0$. Define a function w_1 such that $w_1(x) = y_1'(b)y_2(x) - y_2'(b)y_1(x)$. Now w_1 is a solution to the equation under consideration since it is a linear combination of y_1 and y_2 . Notice that $w_1(a) = w_1(b) = w_1(c) = w_1'(b) = 0$. This is a contradiction to the fact that w is a solution to an equation in F, unless w_1 is identically zero. In that case $y_1(x) = [y_1'(b)/y_2'(b)]y_2(x)$. So y_1 and y_2 are constant multiples.

Case II. Two of the zeros coincide. There are two such cases, but it will be sufficient to examine one of them. Let a = b < c. Therefore $y_1(b) = y_1'(b) = y_1(c) = 0$ and $y_2(b) = y_2'(b) = y_2(c) = 0$. If it were the case that $y_1''(b) = 0$ or that $y_2''(b) = 0$, then the equation under consideration could not be in F. So $y_1''(b) \neq 0$ and $y_2''(b) \neq 0$. Define a function w_2 by $w_2(x) = y_1''(b)y_2(x) - y_2''(b)y_1(x)$. Now w_2 is a solution to the equation under consideration, and $w_2(b) = w_2'(b) = w_2''(b) = w_2(c) = 0$. This is a contradiction to the fact that w_2 is a solution to an equation in F, unless w_2 is identically zero. In that case $y_1(x) = [y_1''(b)/y_2''(b)]y_2(x)$. So y_1 and y_2 are constant multiples.

Case III. All three zeros coincide, a = b = c. Therefore $y_1(b) = y_1'(b) = y_1''(b) = 0$ and $y_2(b) = y_2''(b) = y_2''(b) = 0$. In this case both y_1 and y_2 are multiples of the solution y satisfying the conditions y(b) = y'(b) = y''(b) = 0 and (ry'')'(b) = 1. Hence y_1 and y_2 are constant multiples.

Thus in all cases \mathbf{y}_1 and \mathbf{y}_2 are constant multiples if they have three zeros in common.

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Zeros of solutions to equations in F cannot be expected to separate each other as do zeros of solutions to the second order self-adjoint equation. Since three zeros may be chosen and a solution to the equation in F constructed to pass through the three zeros, then a solution could be constructed so that it would have three zeros between consecutive zeros of another clution. Simple separation of zeros of two solutions of an quation in F is, however, possible if the right conditions are met by the two solutions as will be seen in the following theorem.

THEOREM 3.2. If u and v are two linearly independent solutions of an equation in F such that u(x) = v(a) = u(b) = v(b) = 0, 0 < a < b < c, then the zeros of u and v in (a,b) separate each other.

PROOF. Let u and v both have zeros at a and b, where 0 < a < b. If the theorem is not true, then in the interval (a,b) one of the solutions, say u, has two consecutive zeros, say a_1 and a_2 , which are not separated by zeros of v. Let w be a solution defined by $w(x) = u(v) - \mu v(x)$, where μ is a nonzero constant. Now w(a) = w(b) = 0 for all values μ . By Lemma 2.3 there is a μ that will cause w to have a double zero in (a_1,a_2) , at say γ . Now w is a solution to an equation in F, and it has a double zero with single zeros on either side in (a,b). This is a contradiction. Then it must be the case that the zeros of u and v separate on (a,b).

This result leads directly to the following corollary.

corollary 3.3. If u and v are two nontrivial solutions of an equation in F with zeros at a and b in common, then the number of zeros of u in (a,b) differs from the number of zeros of v in (a,b) by at most one.

PROOF. Note that neither u nor v may have any multiple zeros in (a,b). If one of the solutions, say u, had two or more zeros in excess of the number that the other, v, had in (a,b), then u would have two consecutive zeros not separated by v. By Theorem 3.2 the zeros of u and v must separate, which is a contradiction. Thus the number of zeros of u and v in (a,b) may differ by at most one.

The following result is useful before reducing the restrictions of Theorem 3.2.

LEMMA 3.4. If u and v are two nontrivial solutions of an equation in F and either the zeros of u separate the zeros of v in (a, a,) or u and v have a zero in common in (a, a,), for 0 < a < a, but v does not separate the two consecutive zeros, a, and a, 1 of v, then the zeros of u do not separate the zeros of v in (a, 1, ∞). Further, u and v have no zeros in common in (a, ∞).

PROOF. Each time the zeros of u and v separate each other, the linear combination $z(x) = u(x) - \mu v(x)$, where μ is a nonzero constant, has a single zero in the open interval bounded by consecutive zeros of one solution which are separated by a zero of the other solution. Now if the zeros of u and v separate one or more times in (a_{k+1}, ∞) , then z has a single zero in (a, a_k) and (a_{k+1}, ∞) . However, u is nonzero in (a_k, a_{k+1}) . By Lemma 2.3 there is a μ , such that z has

a double zero in (a,a_{k+1}) , but this contradicts the fact that z is a solution to an equation in F. Then it must be the case that z has no single zeros in (a_{k+1}, \circ) . But z has single zeros in (a_{k+1}, \circ) if u and v separate in the interval or if they have a zero in common. Hence, u and v may not separate or have zeros in common in (a_{k+1}, \circ) . The following lemma results from the same argument.

LEMM 3.4. If the zeros of u and v separate or if u and v have a zero in common in (b_{k+1}, b) and v(x) > 0 in $[b_k, b_{k+1}]$, where b_k and b_{k+1} are consecutive zeros of v, then the zeros of u and v do not separate in $(0,b_k)$. Further u and v have no common zeros in $(0,b_k)$.

These lemmas are used in the proof of the following theorem.

THEOREM 3.5. Let u and v be two nontrivial solutions of an equation in F which vanish at some a > 0. If u(b) = v(c) = 0, a < b < c, and n and m denote the number of zeros of u and v, respectively, in (a,b], then $n-2 \le m \le n+2$.

PROOF. Without restriction let c be the smallest zero of v in (b, ∞) . If v(b) = 0, then u and v have two zeros in common, and by Corollary 3.3 u and v differ by at most one zero on (a,b). Now either u and v both have a single zero at b or u has a double zero and v has a single zero. In either case $n-2 \le m \le n+2$. If $v(b) \ne 0$ then there are two cases to be considered.

Case I. In this case u has a single zero at b and v has no zero at b. Let w(x) be a solution to the equation under consideration with the three zeros a, b, and c. By Theorem 3.3 the zeros u

and w on (a,b) differ by at most one, but u has a single zero at v as does w. Then the zeros of u and w on (a,b] differ by at most one. Likewise, the zeros of v and w separate on (a,c) and must therefore separate on (a,b]. If the zeros of v and w on (a,b] separate, then they differ by at most one. Then the zeros of u and v on (a,b] can differ by at most two. Hence n-2 m n+2.

Case II. Here u has a double zero at b, and v has no nego b. From the augument in Case I it can be seen that $n - 3 \le m \le n + 2$, since u has one additional zero at b. If u age tually has three more zeros than v in (a,b], then u has one more zero than v in (a,b). Now assume that $u^{n}(b) > 0$ and v(b) > 0. Neither u nor vomay have any multiple zeros in (a,b). If a and b are two consecutive zeros of u, where a < b, then by Lemma 3.4 v may not have exactly one zero in (a,,b). If v has no zero in (a,,b), then the linear combination $z(x) = u(x) - \mu v(x)$ has a double zero in (a_x, b) for some $\mu>0$, and a single zero at a . Further, ϵ has a dero in (b,c). This is not pessible as a is a polistics to an equation in F. If ${f v}$ has two or more seres in (5% b) and if the number of earse of ${f u}$ emeaeds the number of cores of v by chros on (a,b), then the number of serve of a exceeds the number of seron of a by three or nore on (a,). It was seen in Case I that the number of seves of u and v on (a, e,) differs by at most two. Them the assumption, that u had three mose neros then v in (a,b) is folso. Hence a = 2 & m & n + 2 .

As a result of this theorem the following corollary is immediate.

CORNLARY 3.6. If u and v are two nontrivial solutions to an equation in F where u(a) = v(a) = v(b) = v(c) = 0, 0 < a < b < c, and u has a double zero at b and at least one other zero in (a,b); then v must vanish in (a,b].

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The restrictions of Theorem 3.2 were reduced to form Theorem 3.5. Likewise, the restrictions will now be further reduced to form Theorem 3.7.

THEOREM 3.7. Let u and v be two nontrivial solutions to an equation in F for which u(a) = u(b) = v(a') = v(b') = 0, 0 < a' < a < b < b'. If n and m denote the number of zeros in [a,b] of u and v, respectively, then $n = 3 \le m \le n + 3$.

PROOF. If v(a) = 0 and q and p are the number of zeros of u and v, respectively, on (a,b], then by Theorem 3.5 $q = 2 \le p \le q + 2$. Now v may have only a single zero at a under these conditions, and u may have a single or a double zero. In cities each $n = 3 \le m \le n + 3$. If $v(a) \ne 0$, then let v be a solution to the equation under consideration with zeros at a^1 , a, and b^1 . Then the zeros of v and v on a and v can be expansive and their number differs by at most one. Further u and v satisfy Theorem 3.5 on (a,b] and their zeros on this interval may therefore differ by at most two. It must be the case that v has exactly one zero at v and v on v and v and v on v and v

If z has its double zero in (a,a_1) , then either v has no zeros in (a,a_1) or more than one. If v has no zeros in (a,a_1) , then z has a zero in (a',a), a double zero in (a,a_1) , and at least one more zero in (a_1,b') . This is not possible, as z is a solution to an equation in F. If v has two or more zeros in (a,a_1) and n-h=m, then u must have at least four more zeros than v on (a,b]. Now let w_1 be a solution to the equation under consideration with zeros at a',a_1 , and b'. Then w_1 and v differ by at most one zero on $(a_1,b]$ and w_1 and u differ by at most two zeros on $(a_1,b]$. So, u and v will differ by at most three zeros on $(a_1,b]$, which is a contradiction. The case where z has its double zero in (a,b) may be handled by a similar argument.

IV. CONJUGATE POINTS

An important concept in the study of the oscillation of solutions to equations in F is that of the n-th conjugate point.

DEFINITION 4.1. Let y be a solution of an equation in F and suppose y has at least n * 3 zeros $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{n+3}$ ($a = a_1 \le a_2$ $\le \ldots \le a_{n+3}, n \ge 1$) for $x \ge a$. The n-th conjugate point of a is

the minimum value of a_{n+3} as y ranges over all solutions of the equation where y(a) = 0. It will be written as $\eta_n(a)$.

It will be seen in Theorem 4.1 that the extremal solution y desired, if in fact one exists, must have a double zero at a, since any other solution with a single zero at a and a zero at a_{n+3} may have at most as many zeros as y on (a, a_{n+3}) .

THEOREM 4.1. If there exists a solution y of an equation in F which vanishes at a and has at least n * 3 zeros in [a, *] then there exist n points η_1, \ldots, η_n (a < $\eta_1 < \eta_2 < \ldots < \eta_n$) and n pair wise linearly independent solutions y_1, \ldots, y_n of the equation under consideration with the following properties:

- (a) for each p from 1 to n the function y has double zeros at a and η,;
- (b) y_p has precisely p + 3 zeros in [a, n_p];
- (c) any other solution z, where z(a) = 0 has fewer than p + 3zeros in $[a, \eta_0]$.

PROOF. Let v be a solution to the equation under consideration satisfying the conditions $v(a) = v'(a) = v(a_{n+3}) = 0$, v''(a) > 0, and v has its first n+3 zeros at $a_1, \ldots, a_{n+3}(a_n = a_1 = a_2 < a_3 < \ldots < a_{n+2} \le a_{n+3})$. Likewise lot w be a solution to the same equation satisfying w(a) = w'(a) = w''(a) = 0 and [rw'']'(a) = 1, then w(x) > 0 for all x in (a, ∞) . By Lemma 2.3 there is a constant $\mu_p \neq 0$ that causes y_p , defined by

(4.1)
$$y_p(x) = v(x) - \mu_p w(x)$$
,

to have a double zero, at say η_p , in (a_{p+2}, a_{p+3}) , if a_{p+2} and a_{p+3} are distinct. If $a_{p+2} = a_{p+3}$, then this gives v a double zero at a_{p+3} . Since v already had a double zero at a it may not have any other zeros in (a_{p+3}, a_{n+3}) . Then this may only happen if $a_{p+3} = a_{n+3}$, that is n = p.

If $a_{n+2}=a_{n+3}$, then v has a double zero at a_1 , and at $a_{n+3}=\eta_n$, therefore let $\mu_n=0$ in this case. So y_p , given by (4.1), has double zero at a and η_p . This completes part (a) of the proof.

Then $\mu > 0$. It must now be the case that $\mu_p w$ intersects each positive arch of the curve v in (a_3, a_{p+2}) at exactly two distinct points. If $\mu_p w$ did not intersect an arch of v in (a_3, a_{p+2}) , then by Lemma 2.3, there would be a μ_p^* such that $v - \mu_p^* w$ would have a double zero, so say γ_1 , in the interval where $\mu_p w$ did not intersect a positive arch of v.

Now it is the ease that $0<\mu_p^*<\mu_p$, since $\mu_p w>v$ on the interval and $\mu_p^*w(\gamma_1)=v(\gamma_1)$. Hence $0<\mu_p^*<\mu_p$. By a similar argument if $\mu_p w$ intersects an arch of v more than twice, there is a μ_p^* , $0<\mu_p^*<\mu_p$, that causes $v-\mu_p^*w$ to have a double zero in the interval val. Since $0<\mu_p^*<\mu_p$, then μ_p^*w must intersect v in the interval (a_{p+2},a_{p+3}) . This situation gives the solution $v(x)-\mu_p^*w(x)$, to the differential equation under consideration, double zeros at a and γ_1 , and a single zero at some γ_2 in (a_{p+2},a_{p+3}) where $0< a<\gamma_1<\gamma_2$.

But this contradicts the fact that the differential equation is in F. So $\mu_p w$ intersects each positive arch of v in (a_3, a_{p+2}) exactly two distinct points. Notice also that y_p may have only single zeros in (a, η_p) . Then y_p has twice as many zeros on (a_3, a_{p+2}) as there are positive arches of v on the interval. Since v was assumed positive on (a_{p+2}, a_{p+3}) , then y_p has p-2 zeros on (a_3, a_{p+2}) . It must be the case that y_p has no zeros in (a_{p+2}, η_p) . Otherwise y_p will have a double zero at η_p , a zero in (η_p, a_{p+3}) , and a zero at a. This may not happen as the differential equation is in F. Now y_p has exactly one zero in (a_2, a_3) . Notice that v and v are positive in (a_2, a_3) , and $v(a_3) = 0$.

If $\mu_p w$ did not intersect v in (a_2, a_3) , then $rw^n(a) > rv^n(a)$, but $rw^n(a) = 0$ and $rv^n(a) > 0$. If $\mu_p w$ intersected v more than once in (a_2, a_3) , then there is a μ_p^{***} , $0 < \mu_p^{***} < \mu_p$, such that $v = \mu_p^{***} w$ has a double zero in (a_2, a_3) , a double zero at a, and a single zero to the right of a_3 . If it is the case that $a_{p+2} = a_{p+3}$, then as noted before $y_p = v$. Then in either case y_p has p + 3 zeros in $[a, \eta_p]$. The result is the same if v(x) < 0 for x in (a_{p+2}, a_{p+3}) . This proves the (b) part of the theorem.

Let z_p be a solution to the same differential equation, but linearly independent of y_p , where $z_p(a)=z_p(\eta_p)=0$. Then $z_p'(a)\neq 0$, otherwise z_p and y_p share three zeros which by Theorem 3.1 causes them to be linearly dependent. Now, y_p and z_p share zeros at a and η_p and hence separate on (a, η_p) . By Corollary 3.3 the number of zeros of y_p and z_p on (a, η_p) may differ by at most one. Assume that z_p has one

more zero than y_p on (a,η_p) . Since y_p has double zeros at a and η_p and z_p has only single zeros, then y_p must have at least one more zero on $[a,\eta_p]$ than any other solution that passes through the points. This proves the final part of the theorem.

Thus y_p is the extremal solution desired and the η_p 's are in fact the p-th conjugate points of Definition 4.1.

In the proof of Theorem 4.1 the points η_p separated the zeros of v on (a, ∞) , unless possibly $a_{n+2} = a_{n+3}$ in which case $\eta_n = a_{n+2}$. If the y of Theorem 4.1 has a double zero at a, then y is a constant multiple of v. This yields the following result.

THEOREM 4.2. If y is a solution to an equation in F such that y(a) = y'(a) = 0, then the zeros of y in (a, ∞) are separated by the points $\eta_p(a)$ conjugate to a (except when the last zero of y is double in which case it coincides with a conjugate point).

From Theorem 4.1 and Theorem 4.2 it would seem that the conjugate points are closely related to the oscillatory or noncecillatory behavior of the equation. Theorem 4.3 and Theorem 4.4 show what the relationship is.

THEOREM 4.3. An equation in F is oscillatory if, and only if, for every a>0 there exists an infinity of conjugate points $\eta_p(a)$.

PROOF. By Definition 1.3 the equation in F is oscillatory if, and only if, it has at least one oscillatory solution y. Since y is oscillatory it must have an infinite number of zeros in $[a, \infty]$ for any a > 0. Suppose a > 0 and n is any positive integer. Let a_i be the i-th zero of y to the right of a. Let u be a solution satisfying $u(a) = u(a_1) = u(a_{n+1}) = 0$. By Theorem 3.3 u will have at least n + 3

zeros in $[a, a_{n+1}]$. By Theorem 4.1 there exists at least n conjugate points of a. Since n was an arbitrary positive integer, than there will be an infinity of conjugate points of a.

If there are an infinite number of conjugate points $\eta_p(a)$ then by Theorem 4.1 there are solutions to the differential equation with arbitrarily many zeros in (a, ∞) . The extremal solutions y_p shown in the proof of the theorem will meet these conditions. Now it is necessary to show that there is a solution with an infinity of zeros. By the emistence and uniqueness theorem the solutions y_p , may be written in the form $y^*(x) = c_1 u(x) + c_2 v(x)$, where u and v are two linearly independent y_p 's. Let K be the class of functions y^* given by

$$K = \{y \mid \exists p \ni y = (c_1^2 + c_2^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}y_p , \text{ where } y_p = c_1 + c_2 v\}$$
.

Likewise let

$$K_{1} = \{y' \mid y \in X\}$$
 $K_{2} = \{y' \mid y \in X\}$
 $K_{3} = \{(xy'')' \mid y \in X\}$
 $K_{h} = \{(xy'')'' \mid y \in X\}$.

The K's are equicontinuous and uniformly bounded classes. Then by applying Ascolis Theorem [5] to subsets of K, K_1 , K_2 , K_3 , and K_{l_1} a subsequence of K is found that converges uniformly to a function y_0 , that is a solution to the differential equation under consideration. Any

limit point of zeros of the y_p 's in the convergent subsequence will also be zeros of y_o . In Theorem 4.2 it was shown that all the y_p 's vanish in the interval (η_{k-1}, η_k) if k < p. So y_o has a zero in each of the intervals $[\eta_{k-1}, \eta_k]$.

This result may now be used to prove the following theorem.

THEOREM 4.4. If an equation in F is nonoscillatory, then there exists an a > 0 such that no solution of the equation has more than three zeros in (a, ∞) .

PROOF. If the theorem were not true, then it would be the case that for all a>0 there exists a solution y, to the equation, where y has at least four zeros in (a, ∞) . Then there exists a sequence of a_i 's $(0 < a_1 < a_2 < \dots)$ tending to infinity such that for each a_i there is a solution y_i of the equation which has four zeros in (a_i, ∞) , and a_{i+1} is to the right of the fourth zero of y_i in (a_i, ∞) . Let v_i be a solution to the differential equation with a double zero at a_1 and another zero at a_i . By Theorem 3.7 v_i must have a zero in each of the intervals (a_p, a_{p+1}) , $(p = 1, 2, \dots, i-1)$.

Since i can be any positive integer, then there will exist solutions of the differential equation with a double zero at a and arbitrarily many zeros on (a_1, ∞) . By Theorem 4.1, there are then an infinity of conjugate points of a_1 . Therefore, by Theorem 4.3 the differential equation in F must be oscillatory which contradicts the original assumption. So the theorem follows.

CHAPTER II

CERTAIN EQUATIONS IN THE CLASS F

I. THE EQUATION
$$[ry^n]^n - py = 0$$

The purpose of this section is to show that the equation

(5.1)
$$[ry^n]^n - py = 0$$
,

where r and p are continuous on (a_0, ∞) , $a_0 > 0$, x(x) > 0, and p(x) > 0 for all x in (a_0, ∞) , is in the class F. This was shown by Interval and Nohari [4].

LEMMA 5.1. If y is a solution of (5.1) and the values of y, y', y'', and (ry'')' at a, $a_0 < a$, are all nonnegative and not all size, then y, y', y'', and (ry'')' are all strictly positive for all x in (a, ∞).

PROOF. The Taylor series expansion with integral remainder of the function my" about the point a can be written as

(5.2)
$$ry'' = [ry'']_a + (x - a)[ry'']_a' + \int_a^x (x - t)p(t)y(t)dt$$
.

Notice that everything to the right of the equality is nonnegative on the interval (a, ∞) except possibly y. Then ry" is positive whenever y is positive, since the integral cannot be zero. So y" must be positive if y is positive, since r is strictly positive. Now y(a) is either positive or zero; if y(a) is zero then the first nonzero quasi-derivative

at a is positive. In any case there is an interval (a,x_0) in which y is strictly positive. Suppose $y(x_0) = 0$. Now y and y' are positive or zero at a and y'' remains positive as long as y is nonnegative. Moreover, y' must be positive as long as y'' is positive. But this implies that y'(x) > 0 for all x in (a,x_0) . If y is strictly positive in (a,x_0) then y' must be negative sameplace in (a,x_0) if $y(x_0) = 0$, but this is a contradiction. Then there cannot be a value of x in (a,∞) . If y remains positive, then so do y' and y''. By differentiation of (5.2),

(5.3)
$$[xy^n]' = [xy^n]_a^i * \int_a^x p(t)y(t)dt$$
,

 $(ry^n)'$ is shown to remain positive so long as y does. Therefore y_yy' , y^n , and $(ry^n)'$ are strictly positive for all x in $(a_y\omega)$.

LEMMA 5.1'. If y is a solution of (5.1) and the values of y, y', y", and (ry") at a, $a_0 < a$, are all nonpositive and not all zero, then y, y', y", and (ry") are all strictly negative in (a, ω) .

PROOF. The proof follows directly from Lemma 5.1 if y is replaced by -y. Note that -y is a solution to (5.1) if y is.

LEMMA 5.2. If y is a solution of (5.1) and if there is a c in (a_0, ∞) for which $y(c) \ge 0$, $y'(c) \le 0$, $y''(c) \ge 0$, and $[ry''] \le 0$ for all x in (a_0, c) ; then y(x) > 0, y''(x) < 0, y''(x) > 0, and [ry'']' < 0 for all x in (a_0, ∞) .

PROOF. Let z be a solution to (5.1) satisfying the conditions of Lemma 5.2. Let y be a function given by $z(t) = y(a_0 + c - t) = y(x)$, where $x = a_0 + c - t$. Now y(x) = z(t), -y'(x) = z'(t), y''(x) = z''(t),

 $= [r(a_0 + c - x)y^n(x)]^{'} = [r(t)z^n(t)]^{'}, \text{ and } [r(a_0 + c - x)y^n(x)]^{''}$ $= [r(t)z^n(t)]^{''}. \text{ So y satisfies the differential equation}$

(5.1')
$$[r(a_0 + c - x)y''(x)]'' - p(a_0 + c - x)y(x) = 0$$

which is of the type (5.1). By supposition z satisfies Lemma 5.2. Now $z(c) \ge 0$, $z'(c) \le 0$, $z''(c) \ge 0$, and $[ry'']_c^{'} \le 0$; therefore $y(a) \ge 0$, $y''(a) \ge 0$, $y''(a) \ge 0$, and $[r(c)y''(a)]^{'} \ge 0$. So y satisfies Lemma 5.1 which states y, y', y'', and $[ry'']^{'}$ are strictly positive on (a, ∞) . Then z(t) > 0, z'(t) < 0, z''(t) > 0, and $[r(t)z''(t)]^{'} < 0$ for all t in (a_0, c) . The interval is changed as a result of the transformation x = a + c - t. Notice that as x = a + c - t. Notice that as x = a + c - t. Notice that as x = a + c - t. Notice that as x = a + c - t. Notice that as x = a + c - t.

LEMMA 5.2'. If y is a solution of (5.1) and if whom is a c in (a_0, ∞) for which $y(c) \le 0$, $y'(c) \ge 0$, $y''(c) \le 0$, and $[ry^n]_0^i \ge 0$, then y(x) < 0, y'(x) > 0, y''(x) < 0, and $[ry^n]_1^i (x) > 0$.

PROOF. The proof follows directly from Lemma 5.2 if y is replaced by -y. Note that -y is a solution to (5.1) if y is.

These four lemmas will be used in the proof of the following theorem.

THEOREM 5.3. If y is a nonvalveal column of (5.1) with y(b) = y'(b) = 0 and $y''(b) \neq 0$, where b is in (a_0, w) , then in at least one of the intervals (a_0, b) and (b, w) all the functions y, y', y'', and [ry''] are different from zero.

PROOF. This situation is to be examined by cases.

Case I. Let y''(b) > 0. if $[ry'']_b^! \ge 0$, then the conditions fit Lemma 5.1. Therefore all the functions $y, y', y'', and [ry'']^!$ are strictly positive on the interval (b, ∞) . If $[ry'']_b^! < 0$, then the conditions fit Lemma 5.2. Then all four of the functions are nonzero on (a_0, b) .

Case II. Let y''(b) < 0. If $[ry''] \ge 0$, then the conditions fit Lemma 5.2'. Therefore the four functions are nonzero on (a_0,b) . If [ry''] < 0, then Lemma 5.1' may be applied and all four functions are strictly negative on (b, ∞) .

In all cases the functions y, y', y'', and [ry''] are newsero on either (a,b) or (b,e).

COROLLARY 5.4. Let y be a new rivial solution to (5.1). If y has a double zero at b, $a_0 < b$, then all other zeros of y must be either entirely in (a_0, b) or empirely in (b, ∞) .

has a double zero at b and another double time at c, a < b < c, then all other zeros of y are restricted to (b,c).

can have at most two double seros.

THEOREM 5.7. If y is a nontrivial solution of (5.1) such that y(b) = y'(b) = y''(b) = 0 for b in (a_0, ∞) , then y has no other zeros on (a_0, ∞) .

PROOF. if $[ry^n]' \ge 0$, then by Lemma 5.1 y is nonzero on (b, ∞) , further by Lemma 5.2' y is nonzero on (a_0, b) . If $[ry^n]_b' < 0$, then by Lemma 5.2 y is nonzero on (a_0, b) , likewise by Lemma 5.1' y is nonzero

on (b,∞) . Then in all cases $y(x) \neq 0$ for $x \neq b$ in (a_0,∞) . If $[ry^n]_b^i = 0$, then y would be the trivial solution.

corollary 5.8. Let y be a nontrivial solution of (5.1) and let a, b, and c be numbers such that $a_0 < a < b < c$. If y(a) = y(b) = y(c) = 0, then $y'(b) \neq 0$.

THEOREM 5.9. Equation (5.1) is in the class F.

PROOF. Corollary 5.4 and Theorem 5.7 give the desired results.

II. EXAMPLES

It is of interest to know there are equations of the type (1.1) in the class F that are not of the type (5.1). It will be sufficient to examples of such equations.

The simplest such example is the equation

(6.1)
$$y^{(k)}(x) = 0$$
,

which is obviously not of the type (5.1). All solutions to the equation are of the form

$$y = c_1 + c_2 x + c_3 x^2 + c_4 x^3$$
,

where the c_1 's are constants. Any solution, in which $c_1 \neq 0$, is a cubic polynomial. By the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, a cubic polynomial has exactly three roots. Therefore every nontrivial solution to (6.1) has at most three zeros.

Using a result of Barrett [2], one may construct examples of

equations in F that have middle terms. However, examples constructed in this way may be transformed into equations of the form (5.1). Such transformations have also been used by Leighton and Nehari [4].

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